DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 197 382 CS 206 091

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TITLE Mainstreaming the Non-English Speaking Student.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, Ill.; National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Ill.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 81
CONTRACT 400-78-0026
NOTE 55p.
AVAILABLE FROM National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801 (Stock No. 30364, $3.45 member, $3.95 non-member)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Classroom Techniques; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); *Learning Activities; *Non English Speaking; *Peer Teaching; *Second Language Learning; Teaching Methods; Tutoring
IDENTIFIERS *Mainstreaming (Non English Speaking)

ABSTRACT

As part of a series of sharply focused booklets based on concrete educational needs, this booklet is designed to provide teachers with the best educational theory and research on mainstreaming non-English speaking children in regular classrooms and to present descriptions of classroom activities that are related to the described theory. Section one of the booklet develops a rationale, based on current theory and research, by which classroom teachers can prepare themselves to mainstream students with limited English speaking abilities. Section two of the booklet contains selected methods and materials for teaching English as a second language to some students in a regular classroom, particularly those that depend on peer tutoring. Appendixes contain 17 learning activities, an outline of self-directing sources for individualized instruction in English as a second language (ESL), an approach for developing methods and materials for starting ESL programs, a sample plan for an open language experience (shopping at the supermarket), and a discussion of procedures for testing ESL students (observations, oral interviews, cloze tests, and dictation). A selected bibliography is attached for teachers of ESL students. (RL)

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MAINSTREAMING THE NON-ENGLISH SPEAKING STUDENT

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Book Design: Tom Kovacs

NCTE Stock Number 30364

Published 1981 by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills and the National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. 400-78-0026. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the National Council of Teachers of English for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the National Council of Teachers of English or the National Institute of Education.

Library of Congress Number 81-65433

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FOREWORD

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system developed by the U.S. Office of Education and now sponsored by the National Institute of Education (NIE). It provides ready access to descriptions of exemplary programs, research and development efforts, and related information useful in developing more effective educational programs.

Through its network of specialized centers or clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for a particular educational area, ERIC acquires, evaluates, abstracts, and indexes current significant information and lists that information in its reference publications.

The ERIC system has already made available —through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service—much informative data, including all federally funded research reports since 1956. However, if the findings of specific educational research are to be intelligible to teachers and applicable to teaching, considerable bodies of data must be reevaluated, focused, translated, and molded into an essentially different context. Rather than resting at the point of making research reports readily accessible, NIE has directed the separate ERIC clearinghouses to commission from recognized authorities information analysis papers in specific areas.

In addition, as with all federal educational information efforts, ERIC has as one of its primary goals bridging the gap between educational theory and actual classroom practices. One method of achieving that goal is the development by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) of a series of sharply focused booklets based on concrete educational needs. Each booklet provides teachers with the best educational theory and/or research on a limited topic. It also presents descriptions of classroom activities that are related to the described theory and assists the teacher in putting this theory into practice.

This idea is not unique. Several educational journals and many commercial textbooks provide teachers with similar aids. The ERIC/RCS booklets are unusual in their sharp focus on an educational need and their blend of sound academic theory with tested classroom practices. And they have been developed because of the increasing requests from teachers to provide this kind of service.

Topics for these booklets are recommended by the ERIC/RCS National Advisory Board. Sugestions for topics to be considered by the Board should be directed to the Clearinghouse.

Bernard O'Donnell
Director, ERIC/RCS

THEORY

Some years ago, at a state meeting of the Utah Council of Teachers of English, an English teacher sought help for three students in her class that she simply did not know how to teach. Two were twin sisters from Mexico who did not speak any English and whose father expected them to always perform in an outstanding way in school. They cried a good deal. The third was an Iranian boy who spoke some English, not enough to work independently, but enough to demand the full, undivided attention of the teacher. Her problem is not unique: a teacher untrained in English as a Second Language (ESL) or Bilingual Education methods and one who could not spend all of her time teaching English to a few students when the rest of her students needed other help. Virginia G. Allen reported (1977) one kindergarten teacher who had twelve non-English speaking children who spoke a total of seven different languages. We cannot ignore these students, yet we cannot spend so much time with them that we fail to serve our other students. This booklet is designed to help teachers solve problems such as the ones mentioned above.

Before selecting appropriate methods and materials for teaching English as a second language to some students in a regular classroom, it is valuable to develop a rationale based on some current theory and research.

The Nature of Language

Linguists, psychologists, and educators have made contributions to our understanding of language, communication, language acquisition and language learning. All seem to agree that human communication is the transmission of information from one person to another. This process includes a sender, a receiver, and a medium of transmission: human beings have available to them taste, smell, touch, sight, and hearing or sound. Although all these senses may be used, human beings have developed one type of communication to such a high degree that it far surpasses all others in its flexibility, expressiveness, creativity, efficiency, and sheer elegance. This type is "human language" (Moulton, 1970).

Language may be defined as a system of verbal communication related to the experiences of its speakers. It uses conventional signs composed of arbitrary patterned sound units assembled according to set rules (Bolinger, 1975). All languages use the same channel for sending and receiving: the vibrations of the atmosphere. All set the vibrations going in the speech organs. Also, all organize the vibrations in the same way: into small units of sound that can be combined and recombined in distinctive ways (Bolinger, 1975).

Communication among speakers of the same language is conventional and arbitrary. The link between a cluster of sounds and the meaning it represents is usually an arbitrary one. Put another way, words do not have meanings: people have meanings for words. Through convention, agreement among the users of a language, clusters of sounds become associated with meanings related to the group's experiences (Bolinger, 1975).

In addition, language is composed of sets of rules. In order to know a language, one has to know the semantic system, the meaning of the words, and the syntactic system, their arrangement in the sentence (Langacker, 1968). Every language also has a set of rules for the selection of linguistic forms for use in certain contexts, e.g., taking turns, making allusions, avoiding insults, showing respect, etc. (Hymes, 1972).

Another characteristic of human language is its extraordinary creativity and productivity. Only language can be used for all the kinds of messages we have to communicate. Most of the sentences we say and hear are sentences that we have never said or heard before (Moulton, 1970).

First Language Acquisition

From the beginning, children are exposed to their first language through the richness of the linguistic environment. They are exposed to a variety of unsimplified adult grammatical and lexical items, much of which they cannot comprehend (Kennedy, 1973). They have to determine the meaning of what the speaker says and then identify the relationship between the meaning and the expression. In other words, the child uses meaning to acquire the language structure (MacNamara, 1971).

A child's first language is acquired through the use of a tool called "the Language Acquisition Device (LAD)." Chomsky (1965) stated that from the primary linguistic inputs, children can form hypotheses, i.e., they can develop tentative rules that match or are appropriate to the data. DiVesta (1974) presented the language acquisition device as a continual recycling (see Figure 1). Thus, the LAD accounts for the acquisition of phonological, syntactic and lexical structures. Apparently, all children acquire their first language through the same processes (Slobin, 1972). In addition, the child also learns a multitude of rules of functional appropriateness (Kennedy, 1972), such as the rules for selecting appropriate language forms to be used for a variety of situations, roles and purposes.

Second Language Acquisition and Learning

Dulay and Burt (1972, 1974) have discussed the process by which students gradually reconstruct rules from the speech they hear. This process is guided by universal innate mechanisms which cause them to use certain strategies to organize that linguistic input until the mismatch between the language system to which they are exposed and what they produce is resolved.

This process underlies the situations in which students are exposed in the second language: (1) through a natural situation, (2) through a classroom situation. However, the first seems to be more effective since students will have strong motivation to use language as a means of communication (MacNamara, 1971). Upshur (1968) also stated that the most efficient language learning is informal, occurring when the learner must make communicative use of the language variety to be learned. Although learning in a classroom situation may be more difficult for the second language learner, the differences lie only in the effectiveness of second language learning, not in the process.

As second language learners attempt to reconstruct language rules, they make various types of errors. The first type of error is caused by interference from the first language. Contrastive analysis has produced studies which predict errors due to differences in the first language and English in the areas of phonology, syntax, and vocabulary (Hocking, 1969).

Another class of error is related to the incomplete application of rules and to hypothesizing false concepts. If the errors are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language, then we are dealing with "strategies of communication." Finally, if they are a result of a clear overgeneralization of target language rules, then we are dealing with the "reorganization of linguistic materials" (Richards, 1971b). Richards (1971a) stated that these errors are universal for

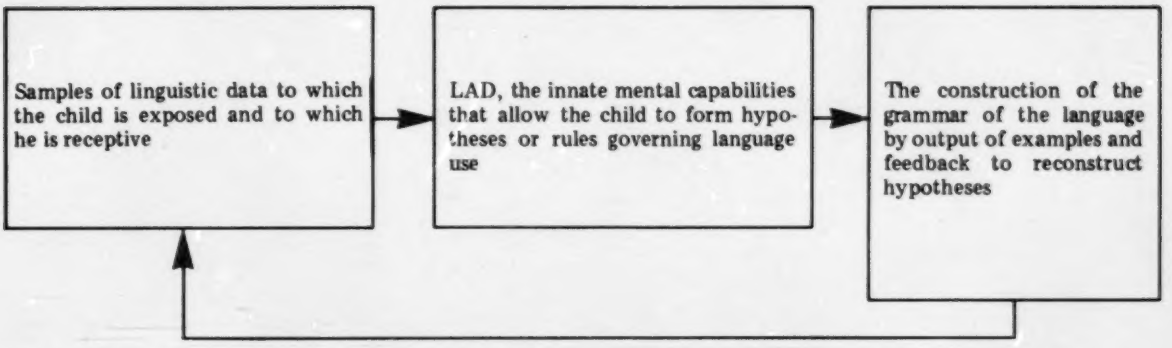
Samples of linguistic data to which the child is exposed and to which he is receptive
LAD, the innate mental capabilities that allow the child to form hypotheses or rules governing language use
The construction of the grammar of the language by output of examples and feedback to reconstruct hypotheses

Fig. 1. Visual representation of the language acquisition device

those who study English as a second language, regardless of their language background. Therefore, they are called "intralingual" or "developmental" errors. Many of these errors are caused by the strategies used by the learner in acquiring the language and cannot be predicted by contrastive analysis.

There are several affective variables which influence the learning process in the second language. For example, "Egoism" includes the self-knowledge, the self-esteem, and the self-confidence of the language learner. A person is forced to take on a new identity in order to become competent in a second language. A strong language ego is considered to be positively correlated with success in second language learning. The motivation to learn the second language also drives a person to strive for things that tend to build or restore self-esteem. For success in second language learning, "inhibitions" should be reduced (Brown, 1973). The personality of a person, for example, whether extroverted or introverted, is related to achievement in second language. Aggressive persons tend to communicate easily and are less inhibited and freer (Brown, 1973). Yet,aggressiveness is not valued in all cultures.

In acquiring the second language, learners have to understand the culture of the target language. Since the meaning of some words in one's native language may be different when translated directly into the target language, it is necessary to learn cultural content through the target language (Lado, 1971).

If a teacher values and understands the culture of the second language learner, fewer problems may occur. Such understanding includes being aware of nonverbal, as well as verbal cues. For example, does one point at a Navaho? Does one pat Vietnamese children on their heads when praising them? Does one point the soles of his or her shoes toward students of Arab descent? Does the lowering of one's eyes indicate the same thing in all cultures? How close should one stand to another when talking? Or, under what conditions may one person touch another? Knowing the answers to such questions can avoid unintended insults and can facilitate cross-cultural communication.

Attitudes toward learning the second language can cause variations in the level of achievement. The attitudes of the learner, the teacher, the learner's peers and parents, and the speakers of the language must be considered. Each relationship might well be shown to be a factor controlling the learner's motivation to acquire the language (Spolsky, 1969).

First and Second Language Learning Compared

It is interesting to compare the similarities and differences in the process of first and second language learning. During the process of acquiring the rules of language, learners of the first and second language make the same kinds of errors. Ravem (1970) studied two Norwegian children learning English and found that the developing English Wh-question and negation structures of those two children were indistinguishable from those of children learning English as a first language in the United States. Dulay and Burt (1974) also found that errors children made while learning certain structures of English as a second language are similar to those made by children learning English natively. They stated that 87.7% of the errors of five-to-eight-year-old Spanish American children learning English as a second language reflect the same developmental structures used by children learning English as a first language; 4.7% were caused by interference and 8.2% were unique errors. Children learning the first language and adults learning the second language made the same errors because these errors reveal a systematic attempt to deal with the data (Richards, 1971b). Since the errors in children's second language speech are indistinguishable from those made by native speakers, it seems reasonable to assume that, in second language acquisition, the mismatch between the child's developing forms and the developed forms of adult grammar will diminish and disappear without the help of corrections of incorrect structures (Dulay and Burt, 1974).

The learners of the first and second language have the same level of performance in the early stage. For instance, they use simple forms of sentences, some semantic redundancy, and overgeneralization of lexical forms (Ervin, 1974).

The first and second language learning processes, however, may also be different in many ways. In the first language, children learn the language to which they are constantly exposed in the natural situation within all kinds of

contexts; in classroom learning of a second language, children are exposed to graded language items which are presented for only a short period of time (Ravem, 1968). Thus, it is difficult for the second language learners to make use of their natural language learning ability in such a class.

Although both the first and second language learners reconstruct the rules of the language that they are learning, the manner in which they do so is different. Children learning the second language are usually older than those learning the first language, and they have already developed their cognitive skills. These factors make the specific strategies of the creative construction process in second language acquisition somewhat different from those of the creative construction process in first language acquisition (Dulay and Burt, 1974).

In addition, second language learners have to face the problems of some degree of interference from the first language in phonology, vocabulary, and syntax. In phonology, it is relatively easy to predict the errors or interference that will occur in the second language (Richard, 1971a). First and second languages are different in vocabulary because people conceptualize differently. Differences in syntax also exist between two languages: the presence of a syntactic feature in the second language that has no analogue in the first language, the presence of a syntactic feature in the second that has only a partial analogue in the first language, and the difference in categorization that may exist between two languages.

Pedagogical Principles

From the study of language and language learning, principles and possible approaches may be derived to assist the classroom teacher in planning instruction for English as a second language students. For example, in light of the fact that language is a means of communication, it should be presented in a meaningful context. The situational approach is an application of this principle. "A situational approach sequences material by situations only, without concern for the relative linguistic difficulty of the material. It is necessary only that the material be presented in contexts representative of actual speech and that it be meaningful to the students." (Hauptman, 1971). In teaching, the teacher must make communication with the students a vital concern (MacNamara, 1971). The teacher should teach students how to *think* about ideas rather than concentrate on the means of expressing those ideas (Oller, 1973). In exposing learners to a natural communication situation, the emphasis should be on the message of the verbal exchange rather than on its form. The teacher should provide clear and concrete references for the major meaning-bearing elements of the verbal expressions (Dulay and Burt, 1973).

However, language is also complex in itself (Stern, 1971). It is difficult to make use of the situational approach alone because the students may need to learn some rules explicitly. Therefore, a structural approach may be used as well. "A structural approach prescribes the graduation of grammatical and lexical material in order of increasing difficulty or complexity. In teaching, each new pattern is compared with a pattern previously taught." (Hauptman, 1971). "When the argument is raised about whether we should teach English as an experience or in graded structural progression, should we not remind ourselves that languages are sufficiently complex to require both approaches." Thus, teachers could use both approaches depending on the situation and the difficulty of the materials (Stern, 1971).

Teachers employ whatever aspects of the approaches will work best for the situations in which they are teaching. Thus, drills are used when needed to reinforce particular skills, but fewer mechanics are required to be memorized, and more classroom communication is aimed at placing language learning in meaningful contexts. Since language lives only in societies of humans, learners of a new language have to learn to express themselves in social environments, and those environments themselves reinforce language learning. Additionally, Cook (1978) stressed the need to emphasize the nature of the learner. A student in a new and potentially strange culture may naturally be shy and unwilling to communicate. The sooner a teacher can incorporate the new English language learner into the classroom socially as well as intellectually, the sooner the learner will be accepted by the new peers and involved in their formal and informal speech situations. Once involved socially, the new student will begin to lose whatever shyness he or she originally felt and begin to experiment with the new language.

In general, the following principles apply to any second language learning situation. First, students should begin by learning their second language orally. By concentrating upon reading and writing, students have little opportunity to listen to the natural rhythms and pronunciations of the language and to arrive at inductive conclusions about the nature of the language, conclusions which are likely to remain with the learner. However, in grade two or above, students should begin reading and writing skills related to the oral language they are mastering. Second, no formal training in grammar or translation should occur until the learner has at least a rudimentary knowledge of the natural spoken language. In that way, learning will occur more quickly, and the learner is less likely to experience interference from the native language, interference that often occurs when students learn from the printed page only. However, older students may make use of their higher cognitive development when presented with some explicit grammatical explanations. Third, a new language is not learned best from vocabulary lists. Students should learn the language in the context of full sentences, and those preferably in real communication environments. In that manner, they learn vocabulary as it is spoken in context, with natural intonation patterns and sound systems. Some researchers argue that the oral approach should be the sole approach in learning language initially. Fourth, above all, language is best learned when one has to use the language. Artificial situations may create a semblance of meaningful contexts, but they do not replace the highly motivating need to actually communicate something. A pedagogy which analyzes and systematizes language study often fails to account for something that most young children learning language realize intuitively: that language is not isolated from the totality of human behavior. Feelings, gestures, facial expressions, needs, values: all are as important to language learning as the awareness of syntactic, semantic, or phonological systems. And in the non-ESL classroom, as Rodrigues (1978) has suggested, speakers of other languages become valuable resources, their knowledge of their own language adding immeasurably to the breadth of classroom experience. If they know they have something to share, they will want to learn more.

Language behaviors are not as easily forgotten as the bits and pieces of language, such as vocabulary, grammatical rules, or memorized conversations. Thus, *How are you, wie geht es Ihnen, Comment allez-vous, Como está,* and other similar expressions remain with learners a long time, no matter what else they may have forgotten. Ask a former G.I. what he remembers of the language of whatever country he was stationed in, and he will undoubtedly remember those elements that were most meaningful to him in a behavioral sense. To someone observing this phenomenon from afar, aided by that objectivity that flows from a lack of emotional involvement, what the G.I. remembers may seem juvenile or even obscene, but, nevertheless, that G.I. remembers that language segment because it supported a meaningful behavior at an important time in his life.

In speaking English to non-English speaking students, the teacher should attempt to speak as normally as possible, taking care to use normal tones of voice, gestures, facial expressions. The speed at which the teacher speaks might have to be slowed a bit, but it should not be slowed to the point where the speech becomes unnatural, something that the student would never recognize outside of the classroom. For example, vowel reduction is a very common phenomenon in English. We are likely to say *yuh* for *you* or *whut* for *what.* We assimilate vowels and consonants quite easily, dropping some sounds entirely. Thus, instead of saying *I am going to,* a native American English speaker is more likely to say *I'm gonna* or *I'mana* or *I'ngna.* We say *would've* rather than *would have.* We use tags and fillers while we are searching for the exact word or expression: *I mean, you know, like, uh, well.* In rapid speech, we drop words, words that native speakers fill in mentally from context and familiarity with the pattern: *Who you going with? He's got two maybe three chances.* And our use of intonation is extremely important in communicating our meaning. Thus, when possible, the teacher should familiarize students with the various registers of speech that native speakers are likely to employ. Martin Joss (1967) noted five styles: Intimate: *C'mon!* Casual: *Come in, come in.* Consultative: *Please come in, would you?* Formal: *Everyone who has tickets may now enter.* Frozen: *Ticket holders are requested to please enter quietly through the door at the extreme left.* In deciding which style to use, students must become familiar with the customs and tradition of the culture whose language they are trying to learn.

As the teacher teaches speaking, so the student also should learn how to listen in the new language. Normally, speakers shout and whisper, speak clearly and slur. They use slang mixed with formal English. They speak in different environments, some of which make hearing difficult. And more often than not, speakers assume a commonality of experience with their listeners. If they realize a difference in experience, they adjust their speech accordingly. For these reasons, language lessons can and should occur in varying environments.

Written grammatical exercises will suffice as review vehicles for certain principles, but they suffer from a number of potential weaknesses. The typical usage exercise in which a student is asked to choose between two responses, one correct and the other incorrect, may actually serve to confuse the learner and may subconsciously imprint the wrong usage. Using fill-in-the-blank type exercises may not actually demonstrate whether a student can speak a complete sentence correctly. Some students know the correct answer, but may not know the remainder of the sentence. In general, grammatical exercises have the same weaknesses for non-native speakers as they do for native speakers: they do not require language use in real contexts, they do not measure a student's ability to produce a sentence, and they may be quite artificial. Nevertheless, they may serve to illustrate certain aspects of language succinctly when the student is ready to learn those aspects. Thus, teachers need not eliminate exercises and worksheets, but they should assign them selectively.

Reading assignments will accomplish much if they are related to the immediate needs of the students. Fortunately, the most immediate need of non-English speakers is the need to learn the language, so the teacher doesn't have to worry about basic motivational strategies as much as when working with the native English speakers. Beginning reading activities can be developed using printed materials made from previously learned oral language. Additional materials that non-native speakers are assigned to read should be about topics that will interest them intrinsically. For example, they need to understand instructions in school, they need to learn how to learn more, and they need to develop their social lives within their newly chosen culture. All students want to feel that they are accomplishing something worthwhile, and the choice of reading assignment can reinforce their feelings of accomplishment, making the teaching task that much easier.

Lado (1955) noted we should be concerned with three aspects of words: their form, their meaning, and their distribution. While written form may be consistent, in speech words will vary according to pitch, stress, and juncture. As affixes are added, the spoken and written form may change, as in *sane* and *sanity*. Or, the form of a word may not convey its meaning. Thus, *run* has many meanings for the same form, and even a literal translation may not communicate meaning to a speaker from a different culture. The distribution of a word varies according to its part of speech and according to regional and social dialects. A sound vocabulary program will account for form, meaning, and distribution. Knowing when to use certain words and idiomatic expressions is essential to communicate with native speakers.

In order to write within a second language, a student needs to know much more than just vocabulary and syntax. For this reason, training the student first in speaking and listening can develop in that student a familiarity with conventions or the ability to choose from a variety of rhetorical styles. Then, a broad reading program will familiarize the student with written Standard English, which differs considerably from colloquial spoken English. As in any writing program, assignments should be varied, providing the student with the opportunity to practice writing for varying audiences, with different purposes, and in numerous voices.

Perhaps the most challenging task for the teacher occurs when the written script of the student's first language differs from the written script of English. In this case, the pedagogical strategy should still begin with oral speaking and listening exercises. Some teachers have achieved success by asking students to trace the new script, literally copying the strokes, learning to start at the upper left-hand corner and to proceed to the right-hand side, connecting letters rather than writing them individually. If the teacher has time, inductive spelling exercises can be tied to learning to write the new script. At this early stage of learning, being able to form words and letters correctly is more important than being

able to spell the words correctly, although seeing the words written correctly, learning how to pronounce them in real contexts, and writing the words in meaningful contexts will help the student advance.

Ultimately, teaching one or two students the basics of the English language while trying to teach the rest of one's class an entirely different curriculum is extremely difficult. But the teacher can help establish individual learning situations, involving other students in the teaching process whenever possible, being prepared to answer questions that the teacher may never have considered, and placing as much responsibility as possible for learning English upon the student learner. Progress may sometimes be frustratingly slow, but, at other times, sudden insights may lead to rapid leaps forward. There is an added benefit as well: the English speaking tutors may themselves learn much more about their language.

PRACTICE

Assigning a classroom "buddy" to tutor the learner, to explain whatever has to be done—in sign language, English, or whatever system the English speaking student can devise—is a productive way of helping that lone non-English speaker, as well as helping the classroom teacher. This buddy-tutor system can be on a voluntary or rotational basis, but the English speaking student should not be forced to help the non-English speaking student, for then the classroom teacher/student relationship may be damaged. In the buddy system, the teacher can give the English speaking student specific directions on exercises to employ with the non-English speaking student, excusing the English speaking student from the day's assignment and freeing the teacher to work with the rest of the class. In all peer-tutoring instances, the teacher instructs the tutors to give encouraging remarks. In exchange, the teacher should encourage and reward the tutor.

Organization. For the learner who speaks no English, a very practical introduction to the language in a meaningful context is to begin with classroom instructions. Either the teacher or tutor can make a list of the most common things a teacher is likely to say, such as:

Please pass in your papers.

Open your book to page _____.

Please get into groups.

Listen quietly.

The teacher directs one of the learner's peers to serve as a tutor and to teach these expressions, using gestures, facial expressions, and other forms of pantomime to communicate the meaning of the expressions. Later, the peer tutor can take the learner around the classroom, introducing common objects, such as pencil, pencil sharpener, book, bookcase, chalk, eraser, blackboard, desk, and seat. On subsequent days, the tutor can review and check the learner's ability to recall these terms.

For the student tutors, the teacher may want to demonstrate a structured way of presenting new vocabulary. Thus, the tutor would pick up each object in turn, showing it to the learner while saying its name:

"Chalk." (Showing the chalk.)

"Blackboard." (Pointing to the blackboard.)

"Eraser." (Showing the eraser.)

Then the tutor employs a simple sentence containing the new word and indicates to the learner that the learner should repeat the sentence:

Tutor: "This is an eraser."

Learner: "This is an eraser."

After repeating that procedure several times, the tutor employs a question and answer technique first asking a question, then answering the question so that the learner can know the correct response, and then asking the question again:

Tutor (holding up a piece of chalk): "Is this chalk? Yes, this is chalk." (Repeating for the learner) "Is this chalk?" (Indicating that the learner should reply)

Learner: "Yes, this is chalk." or "Yes, that is chalk."

After the learner knows that question and answer pattern, the tutor can move on to a new pattern:

Tutor (holding up a piece of chalk): "Is this an an eraser? No, this is not an eraser. It is chalk." (Repeating for the learner) "Is this an eraser?" (Indicating that the learner should reply)

Learner: "No, this is not an eraser. It is chalk."

While this procedure may appear potentially boring since it is so repetitious, in fact it provides an immediate way to begin communicating with and

building the vocabulary of a learner who speaks little or no English at all. In a very short while, both the ESL student and the tutor can more to more variations:

Tutor: "Where is the blackboard?"
Learner: "There is the blackboard."

Tutor: "Is the pencil sharpener here or there?"
Learner: "It is here."

Tutor: "Which piece of chalk is larger?"
Learner: "That piece of chalk is larger."

Clearly, the initial learning of English will be much easier if both tutor and learner have materials to manipulate and talk about.

Toward Independent Free Speech. Rivers and Temperley (1978) suggest numerous activities that are designed to develop what they call "autonomous interaction." They caution the teacher not to select activities that will frustrate learners whose abilities are not yet equal to the task they are assigned. Their suggestions should provide ideas for brief activities packets that the teacher can develop and give student tutors:

1. Establishing and maintaining social relations, such as: How do people greet each other? What are American table manners? What are typical American gestures? How and when are they used?
2. Expressing one's reactions, such as: Speaking in class, writing letters to an editor, writing letters of complaint, watching a friend's slide show.
3. Hiding one's intentions, such as: Playing guessing games or keeping secrets when pressed by a nosey friend.
4. Talking one's way out of trouble, such as: Responding to a complaint or handling a rumor.
5. Seeking and giving information, such as: Asking for help at a library or talking about one's experiences.
6. Learning or teaching how to do or make something, such as: Explaining how to start a hobby or how to repair a mechanical device.
7. Conversing over the telephone, such as: Using a pay telephone, asking for information, or speaking clearly.
8. Problem solving, such as: Playing mystery games or finding information in a new town.
9. Discussing ideas, such as: Comparing cultures or values, offering advice.
10. Playing with language, such as: Word puzzles, rhymes, or—at an advanced level—puns.
11. Acting out social roles, such as: Seeking jobs or dealing with parents or teacher, using role-playing situations when possible.
12. Entertaining others, such as: Puppet shows, radio and TV, songs.
13. Displaying one's achievements, such as: Reports to the class, bulletin boards, discussions.
14. Sharing leisure activities, such as: Special holiday behaviors or hobbies or trips.

(A series of activity packet instruction sheets, to be used by peer tutors, is included at the end of this booklet. You may reproduce them.)

Intonation Patterns. In addition to speaking basic sentences, the tutor can be instructed to vary the sentences as the non-English speaking student advances. When that student learns a new intonation pattern, the tutor can show the student the written version and then have the learner practice reading it out loud.

There are three pieces of chalk on the floor. (unstressed *there*)

There are the three pieces of chalk, on the floor. (stressed *there*)

The girl is intelligent.

She's an intelligent girl.

He's a good dancer.

He's a great dancer.

He's the best dancer in the whole school.

As a simple exercise, tutor and learner can play a game of Echo. The tutor speaks an English sentence with a normal intonation pattern. The learner tries to echo it. If the learner succeeds, he or she receives a point. If not, the tutor receives the point. A third student can serve as an independent judge. The tutor should begin with sentences that are relatively easy to hear and move to more complex sentences, variations upon the

original sentence, questions, and negatives. This exercise trains the learner to listen closely to native English speakers. In some cases, the learner may not even understand the complete English sentence, but the mimicry will build the learner's "ear" for the language and, combined with other exercises, will lead to greater oral literacy.

Teaching Objects. Have the tutor go around the room with the learner introducing objects found in a typical classroom and asking questions about them.

"This is a book. What is this?" "A book." (Notice that native English speakers would typically not respond "This is a book.")

"This is a pencil sharpener. What's this? What does it do?" (Later, "What's it do?" might be more natural for a native speaker.)

"This pencil is yellow. What color is this pencil?"

"This is the front of the room. That is the back. Where are we?"

"This is an eraser. What's it for?"

In order to simplify the amount of time a teacher must spend instructing the English-speaking tutor, Virginia G. Allen (1976) suggests using shoebox kits, "each containing a few objects and a task card (a 5" x 8" index card) which lists vocabulary, structures, and activities." For specific examples, she suggests a Color Box, a Fruit Box, a Wash and Dry Box, a Neighborhood Box with a map and models of buildings, and a Table Setting Box. Young women might profit from comparing the contents of their purses. Middle school boys might enjoy comparing the contents of their pockets. One advantage of Allen's shoe box kit suggestion is that students are then contained within a limited area of the room and not wandering around while class is going on.

Teaching Numbers. For beginning elementary English learners, provide the tutors with boxes containing a varying number of similar objects, *e.g.*, 10 pencils, 2 erasers, 9 pieces of chalk, 11 paper clips. These provide ready objects to teach the basic number system with the tutor asking questions of the learner. Such collections also provide materials for teaching concepts such as *more* or *fewer*. Styrofoam egg cartons are excellent containers for holding and manipulating numbers of objects. Small objects such as beans or marbles can be moved from one compartment to another with ease. Using spinners and dice adds an element of chance to number learning. Once the students have learned their basic numbers, they can have fun practicing on simple game-board games.

More advanced elementary learners or secondary learners may want to simply be instructed in the number system itself and practice learning it on their own. But again, the game-board game adds interest to a normally routine learning task.

As an exercise, the tutor can dictate a list of those numbers the learner should have mastered, having the learner write them down. Or, given a particular number to listen for, the learner can listen to the tutor reel off a rapid list of numbers with the key number hidden in the middle. The learner signals when the target number is spoken.

Developing Listening Skills. To train students to listen carefully, ask a series of fact questions about a reading selection before reading it. Then the learner can listen for the answers. The reading should be as natural as possible, paying particular attention to the normal English phrasing.

To teach students to understand contractions, use them normally. As a check of whether the learner does hear the correct contraction, have the learner listen to a brief statement and then respond, "Yes, you _____." For example:

I see you.	Yes, you *do.*
I'll see you.	Yes, you *will.*
I'd see you.	Yes, you *would.*
I'd seen you.	Yes, you *had* (or, in some instances, *did*).

As a variation, introduce negatives and ask for contractions:

I could do it.	No, you *couldn't.*
I'd do it.	No, you *wouldn't.*
I'll do it.	No, you *won't.*

Question tags give ESL students another syntactic structure while also reinforcing their listening skill and teaching *be* verb shifts. First the tutor uses the question tag and response, and then the tutor actually requests appropriate responses:

Tutor: "You're doing a good job today, aren't you?"

Learner: "Yes, I am."

Tutor: "I'm the teacher, aren't I?"

Learner: "Yes, you are." or "No, you're the tutor."

Asking students to listen to long paragraphs or short groups of paragraphs and then summarize what they have heard forces them to listen carefully and to use spontaneous language. As always, the exercise should not exceed the abilities of the learners.

Speaking Stress. Give the learner a simple English sentence, such as "I hit him." Demonstrate through words or gestures or both how putting stress on a different word each time the sentence is spoken can change the meaning of the sentence. Then ask questions that lead the learner to stress different words for different meanings.

Whom (or who) did you hit?	I hit *him.*
Did you hit *her*?	No, I hit *him.*
Who hit him?	*I* hit him.
Did *you* hit him?	Yes, *I* hit him.
What did you do to him?	I *hit* him.
Did you *hit* him?	Yes, I *hit* him.

Teaching Verbs. Titone (1968) described the "Gouin series," in which the tutor acts out a series of sentences using different verbs. The student learning English then must repeat and explain the actions. The tutor writes down what the student says and then shows it to the student to read. This provides both basic sentence and sentence manipulation practice. As a variation, the tutor gives orders to the student, the student performs the act, and then the tutor asks the student to describe what he or she is doing. One subject for such an exercise might involve map reading: "Follow the map to Denver and then turn toward Boulder. In what direction are you going?" (Repeat) "You are going in *what* direction? Find the shortest route to Aspen. Now return to Colorado Springs. Now, tell me what you just did or describe the trip/journey you just took/made." As a variation, students can go to the library, giving directions to one another about how to find certain items. (A sample activity is "scavenger hunt," contained in the activity packets at the end of this booklet.)

These directions force the learners to pay particular attention to the verbs, a task that may become increasingly more difficult as compound verbs are employed. The student tutors themselves can be encouraged to devise more situations that would involve using many verbs, such as practicing following recipes or learning a new game.

The progressive and emphatic forms of verbs often create particular difficulties for ESL students, especially when they are contrasted with the simple present and past forms of the verbs.

I go.	I went.
I am going.	I was going.
I do go.	I did go.

By acting out the sentences and using the verbs at the same time, both tutor and learner make their meaning more clear. If the learner knows certain adverbs, the task becomes a bit easier. Thus, using a chair as a prop, the tutor can demonstrate the sentences and ask the learner to speak and act at the same time:

Every day I sit in the chair.

Now I am sitting in the chair.

(Emphatically) Yes, I do sit in the chair!

For the ESL student, the progressive form is particularly confusing because "I am going to . . ." is the most common way of expressing future tense in American English.

Since constant repetition of certain forms, especially confusing ones, can tire students and develop negative attitudes, the teacher and tutors should be alert to tiring learners and be prepared to switch to activities that are less tedious and more interesting. The exercise can always be repeated briefly on other days.

Syntactic Variations. To check a learner's ability to manipulate simple syntax, make a statement, then change the statement slightly, placing a blank where the learner has to use the correct syntactic form, such as:

(tense) Today I hit the ball. Yesterday I _____ the ball.

(prepositions) The ball is in the box. Please take the ball _____ _____ the box.

Variations can involve reducing clauses to phrases or shifting from a formal to an informal

level of speech. Sentence combining—expansion and deletion—exercises provide a good format. For example, in how many ways can the following sentences be combined?

The test is tomorrow. I have to study for the test.

If students do not know particular constructions, they can be given models and then asked to create new sentences based upon the model. For example:

Model: I have to study for the test *that is tomorrow.*

Exercise: Combine the following two sentences based upon the above model: Put it in the mailbox.

The mailbox is on the left.

Students can be taught the variations or transformations that occur when sentences are turned into questions or negatives or negative questions first by providing them models from which they can induce the correct rules and then by having the tutor give them a sentence that they can turn into questions, negatives, or negative questions:

You are going to do your homework.	Are you going to do your homework?
	or
	You're not going to do your homework.
	Aren't you going to do your homework?
He received the best grade.	Did he receive the best grade?
	He did not receive the best grade.
	or
	He didn't receive the best grade.
	Didn't he receive the best grade?

Tutors and learners should practice only one pattern at a time until the learner grasps the principle underlying the form. This is one exercise in which both teacher and tutor should be cautious that the level of teaching does not cause the learner to become either bored or frustrated.

On Using Dictionaries and Grammar Tests. Generally, try not to use reference aids such as dictionaries or grammar books until the learner has developed confidence in using language orally. The reliance on such books actually inhibits the free flow of language.

Learning Phatic Expressions. Certain expressions that are commonly used to establish and maintain relationships are not meant to be taken literally. Yet any English speaker should know such expressions almost intuitively. Being able to use them like a native speaker will open many opportunities for the non-English speaker. In teaching greetings, the tutor can greet the learner in various ways, giving the learner the appropriate response and practicing these greetings until the learner memorizes them and can use them appropriately:

How are you?	Fine, you?
How are you doing?	O.K., how are you?
How's it going?	Alright, thanks. How about you?
Nice day!	Sure is!

Non-English speaking students may have similar expressions in their native languages. Perhaps, in exchange, the language learner can teach the student tutor those parallel expressions from the learner's native language.

Notice that many phatic uses of language barely follow any form of logic:

Would you like to pass your papers in. (Not a question. No oral response is needed.)

Last one in is a rotten egg! (Traditional metaphor)

Do you mind if I . . . (A polite way of announcing that you intend to do something.)

You don't say! (The person just did say.)

To become more aware of ways that native English speakers greet each other or terminate conversations, the learner can be assigned to watch other students and adults as they meet and leave each other, taking notes on the expressions they use. Some interesting discoveries may result. For example, what do English speakers say when they want to get out of an uncomfortable situation or one they are bored with? "Well, I've gotta go." "Time for class, I guess." "Oops, I left my homework in my locker." What else? Seldom does a native English speaker say anything as formal as "It has been nice talking to you. Goodbye."

Language learners who are not afraid to speak or perform before a class of native English speakers may enjoy demonstrating some of the ritualistic language behaviors they have observed among their peers. Thus, the native English speakers may learn more about themselves and their language, adding to the value of having non-native speakers in class.

Idioms. Idiomatic expressions pose problems for the new learners of any language, yet they can be fun to learn and discuss. One way of involving the entire class in teaching idioms to the non-English speaking student is to ask the class members to each select one idiom and role play a scene about it or pantomime the idiom or create an art project related to it. Then they can ask the non-English speaking student if he or she understands the idiom and can explain it in English. That would be a maximum test of the student's ability to interpret the idiom. Some tests might include asking the learner such questions as:

If a person is angry, can she be burned down?

If things are starting to improve, are they falling apart or falling together?

A Usage Game Format. If you have a group of ESL students, they may play this game together, with their tutors observing. If you only have one or two ESL students, you will want to use volunteers from the class to act as the ESL class group.

Procedure:

1. The ESL student is told which usage item is to be tested by the game, e.g., *this, these, that, those,* or *did, didn't, does, doesn't.*
2. A situation is agreed upon by all the students. For example, one of the students is to be "it" or is to perform some act while the ESL student is out of the room.
3. The ESL student leaves the room while the group determines the person or thing to be talked about.
4. The ESL student returns and either makes statements or asks questions that employ the usage item around which the game centers. The class responds, also using the appropriate usage item. For example, imagining that the purpose is to find a thief, the ESL student might ask, pointing to a student, "Is *this* the thief?" and the class would reply, "No, *that* is not the thief," or "Yes, *that* is the thief."

Or, checking verb usages, the ESL student might say, "Juan *saw* the thief." And the group might respond, "No, Juan *did not see* the thief" or "Yes, Juan *saw* the thief."

Or, practicing pronoun usages, the ESL student might ask, "Is the thief next to *her*?" And the group might respond, "Yes, *she* is next to the thief." The same format could be used to practice prepositions, *e.g.*, "The thief is *in front of/behind/next to* her."

This game format could be used to practice many usage items, the variations only limited by the imaginations of the teacher and the game players.

Checking on Native Accent. Have the English learner read an English selection into a tape recorder. Have the tutor listen to the tape while reading the written script. As variations from a standard American English variety occur, the student tutor can mark them on the script, reread the correct form to the learner, and have the learner practice again. If the learner consistently misses certain pronunciations, the tutor can make a list of those and have the learner practice. Remember, a cardinal rule is that the learner should never practice pronouncing isolated words. They should always be used within the context of a sentence or at least a phrase. In writing, words are artificially separated by spaces, but in speech, one sound leads directly into another. A native speaker's awareness of intonation patterns and possible word combinations helps that speaker separate one word from another.

Introducing Reading for the ESL Student. Because you don't want to limit your students to speaking and aural comprehension, and because your students don't want to be so limited, you will naturally move into reading activities early in your program.

You may be afraid right now that your background in reading theory and methodology is too limited for you to be effective as a reading teacher. And perhaps eventually you will give your students over to a reading teacher to complement your work in ESL. (Please not the word *complement*; it is very important that you and your reading teacher colleague work together, cooperatively, in using materials that have continuity.) However, at the beginning, and perhaps for quite a while, you will teach reading and writing skills along with oral-aural skills.

Don't be frightened (you really *can* do it).

Be positive, always, with your ESL students; a positive attitude on your part will stimulate a positive attitude on the part of your students.

Below are listed the steps, and some suggested materials, for *one* procedure in teaching reading at the basic level in ESL.

Materials:

1. The current dialogue (or simple story), written on a flip chart, for viewing by the entire class.
2. Individual copies of the dialogue (with large type, preferably), which the ESL students may collect in a notebook or theme binder to form their reading "books".
3. A pocket chart (which may be easily constructed *if* your school doesn't have commercially made ones).
4. Cards four inches high and of varying lengths with the words of the dialogue printed individually in manuscript letters with a black marker.
5. Overhead projector may be used by the teacher, although we have found it to be only marginally useful.

Procedure:

1. Put the flip chart in front of the ESL student or students, and call attention of the ESL students to the chart.
2. Have them follow with their eyes as you read the dialogue (be careful to keep a fairly natural pace rather than to call words slowly).
3. Have them "read" (repeat orally) the dialogue in chorus as you read it and point to the sentences.
4. Have them read the dialogue in chorus while you silently point to the chart.
5. Take the first line of the dialogue, and ask them to read it in chorus.
6. Have them read the line (sentence) in groups (half the class, then smaller groups).
7. Call for volunteers (who may come to the front if they wish) to read the sentence.
8. Ask questions for comprehension (at various points in the reading, after the group reading and after individual reading).
9. Point randomly to words on the flip chart and ask for volunteers to read the words.
10. Call for volunteers to come to the flip chart and point out words which you will say.
11. Walk around the room and ask people to read a line or two for you from their pages; ask the others to follow silently as each one reads. (Don't neglect *anyone ever*; always let everyone read a little for you and the class.)
12. Distribute individual word cards, and ask people to read their cards to the class. You may also let different people read words on the cards belonging to other people. (Example: "Mr. Rivas [Juan, if you and the students have this rapport], please show us your word. Miss Padilla, will you read the word for us? Thank you.")
13. Let the people come to the front, one at a time, to place their cards to form the dialogue on the pocket chart (they can use their dialogue sheets to help them keep the sequence.)
14. Call for volunteers to take random words from the pocket chart and form original utterances.

If you are kind and *if* you are *very* positive in reinforcing their efforts, you can frequently ask people to read. Just take care not to press someone who is very reluctant. If person shows unwillingness, then let others read until that person gains confidence. Be sure *never* to say "No" or "That's not right"—you can always say "All right" and then help the person having trouble read again.

I'd like to speak to the manager, please.

May I ask what it's about?

I'd like to see her about this position.

Certainly, just have a seat over there for a moment.

Pre-dialogue Exercises. If the teacher wants the student tutor and student learner to practice a dialogue, the teacher ought to first instruct the tutor to try to set the scene for the dialogue, making it resemble a real situation if at all possible. For example, the tutor, perhaps using another student from the class, can act out the situation or whatever might have led up to that situation, or tell a story or use mime or draw a cartoon or use a map—anything that will clarify the context in which such a dialogue might take place. The dialogue should be spoken as naturally as possible, but at a pace that is not too fast for the learner.

If possible, dialogues should not be memorized, but stock responses may have to be. As students become comfortable working with dialogues, the teacher or the tutors themselves can suggest variations built upon previous dialogues. For example, an initial dialogue might consist of talking about the school cafeteria (using situations and contexts from the students' immediate environment will facilitate learning through an intrinsic motivation). From there, tutors and learners can move to discussing a local junk food chain store and then to dining in a fancier restaurant. As the learners advance, the teacher or tutor can discuss increasingly refined dining. Again, role playing and pantomime may help the learner acquire such distinctions.

Dialogues. Many dialogues can be found in textbooks specifically designed for the ESL classroom. If the learners are forced to stick to the entire dialogue, word for word, they may end up memorizing a script rather than using language spontaneously. So after the learner has practiced with a prepared script, the teacher or the tutor can prepare half a dialogue, forcing the learner to respond in his or her own words. As learners become more adept and secure, they can be encouraged to respond in new or unpredictable ways, attempting to throw off the dialogue as it was first prepared.

Prepared dialogue: Are you going to the movie with your mother?

Spontaneous response: No, my mother is in bed with a cold.

For variety, the tutor might begin with a prepared script, but depart from it before the natural conclusion. Or the learner might be given the final line or lines from such a dialogue, and both the learner and tutor would have to find a way to work up to the prepared end.

Many learners feel more comfortable when speaking through puppets. Encourage the learners or learner and tutor to present puppet plays for the rest of the class. Variations upon dialogues can then be worked out with the puppets. For example, they might be given a problem situation and have to work it out. Or they might decide upon the personalities of the puppet characters beforehand and develop an improvisation.

Using Dialogue from Literature. If the nonnative English speaker can read English fairly well, discuss the relationships of various characters from literature as revealed by their dialogue.

Which is older? In command?

How do they feel about each other? Do they like/love/hate each other?

What does speaker X want from speaker Y?

More advanced students can be asked to summarize the dialogue.

Oral Reports. Oral reports to the class ought to be short at first. Until the learners begin to trust the class, the teacher may want to hear these brief oral reports in one-to-one situations. The learners might want to practice on their peer tutors. But oral reports provide excellent opportunities to integrate the students into the regular class. The learners can be instructed to prepare a response from their perspective toward whatever the class is studying. As the learner becomes more confident and as the class becomes more willing to help the learner, brief question and answer periods can be scheduled following the oral report. If several non-English speaking students are present in the class, they might try a group presentation, practicing first among themselves or with peer tutors prior to making the report before the class.

When the teacher or tutor believes that the learner has a vocabulary large enough to make such an oral report, the teacher or tutor can help the learner make a skeleton outline of the report, an outline using the key words or expressions that the learner would need to use. From that, the learner would attempt complete sentences that would be more spontaneous than a prepared script.

Writing. Writing exercises should follow reading exercises and may be tied in to speaking and listening exercises, but longer assignments should be withheld until the learners feel comfortable with the language orally. Among the writing exercises that intermediate English learners could handle are:

sentence-combining exercises
sentence-modeling exercises
writing dialogues
copying from dictation
writing last sentences to paragraphs dictated or read
rewriting a story or summarizing it
unscrambling scrambled sentences

completing sentences with words left out
writing brief reports
writing endings to stories

For sentence-combining exercises, the teacher may want to consult such texts as William Strong's *Sentence Combining, Paragraph Linking*; Frank O'Hare's *Sentencecraft*; or Robert Marzano and Phillip di Stephano's *Di Comp.* As a normal teaching technique, asking students to combine short sentences from their own writing, producing longer, more complex sentences, may work more effectively than simply providing textbook exercises.

When the teacher wants the student to learn a new sentence pattern, a sentence model may be the key. The teacher selects or creates a sentence with the desired syntax pattern and then asks the student to create a new sentence modeled upon the exercise sentence. For example, if a prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence is desired, the teacher might give the student:

In the barn, the horses were asleep.

and the student could write something like:

On our house, the roof is green.

Four other techniques for stimulating writing have proved successful at various levels of proficiency.

1. Journal Writing. Many teachers have found that journals stimulate students to write freely and in an uninhibited fashion. Language learners can be encouraged to keep journals of their thoughts and ideas once they have developed a vocabulary large enough to write relatively freely. At this point they may find a dictionary particularly valuable.

For students in the middle grades and above, the journal writing assignment provides a number of advantages. Students can be assigned to write an average number of words a day, enough to allow them to express themselves freely, but not enough to frustrate them. Fifty words may be enough to begin with. The teacher should not correct errors in the journal, for to do so would inhibit students' writing freely; but the teacher may want to suggest more accurate vocabulary or idioms when it is evident that the student is searching for clearer expression. Teacher comments in the journal should be limited to personal, human responses to what the student has to say. As a result, the student can view the journal as a chance to communicate rather than as an abstract assignment. (Note: Many students educated in the schools of other cultures find it difficult to adjust to relatively free, unstructured United States classroom experiences and may have more respect for the teacher who does check all their efforts. In talking, try to determine the feelings of the student in this matter.)

For the teacher, the journal provides an easy way to determine the student's progress in learning English. More importantly, the journal may give the teacher insights into the student's culture and allow the teacher to become aware of any fears, frustrations, problems, hopes, and dreams the student has, thereby improving the chance to communicate more openly.

2. Dictionary Writing. Older students familiar with using dictionaries may overuse them, becoming overly dependent upon them and frustrating the teacher's desire to encourage a free flow of speech. The teacher can turn this dictionary orientation to good account by requiring the ESL students to use only dictionaries that they have written themselves. The students can study dictionaries, note the types of entries, and try to emulate them. If students want to write definitions in their native language, require that the definitions be completed in English *first.* The English speaking students in the class can test the definition for accuracy, suggesting ways to improve the definition, drawing pictures if necessary, and asking questions of the ESL student to determine whether that student has grasped the meaning of a word as a native English speaker would know it.

3. Language Experience Approach. Younger students often respond well to pictures and delight in developing their own stories orally. The teacher can provide the student tutor with a number of photographs. The tutor then asks the ESL student to describe what is happening in the picture or series of pictures. As the ESL student talks, the tutor writes what the student says, word for word, putting in punctuation where it belongs. Then the tutor reads to the ESL student what has been written; finally, they read it together. If vocabulary is used incorrectly, the tutor can suggest more accurate substitutions at this point, reread the selection with the student again, and then ask the student to read it independently.

If the learner says, "I'm gonna do it," the tutor writes, "I'm going to do it," which is still pro-

nounced, "I'm gonna do it." The tutor will also want to explain any variations from native English usage. Thus, if a learner says, "I know nothing," the tutor would first write that, but then would note a standard American usage, such as, "I don't know anything."

4. Copying from Dictation. All ESL students, elementary or secondary, can profit from occasional dictations. The selections may be taken from their reading books or may be created by the student tutor or the teacher. Consider the following guidelines in developing and using dictations:

   a. Adjust the length and difficulty to the ability of the ESL student.
   b. Use selections in which the student should be familiar with most of the vocabulary.
   c. Read slowly, but try to maintain natural intonation patterns throughout.
   d. Say punctuation as it occurs, thus: "Where are you going, question mark."
   e. After you have read the selection slowly, reread it at a natural pace so that the ESL student can hear it as it would normally be spoken.
   f. Ask the ESL student to read it back to you.
   g. Compliment the student on good work whenever appropriate.

Using Newspapers with ESL Students. Sharyn Markus, an English teacher in Air Academy Junior High School, Colorado Springs, Colorado, has developed a number of newspaper activities for students learning English. Among these are:

1. Find pictures related to a specific topic, such as clothes, cars, or entertainment. Cut out and label each picture.
2. Select a picture of interest. There is often a pleasant color picture on the front page. Look through the newspaper to find words that describe the picture. (The teacher can limit the words to different parts of speech.)
3. If the student is enrolled in Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Band, or Physical Education, clip pictures and words relating to types of equipment used in these classes. Discuss the uses or rules for use.
4. By looking through the newspaper, shop for school clothes. Discuss the trends in what students are wearing to classes, to dances, or out on the street.
5. Clip pictures of enjoyable foods. Identify which foods are sold in the cafeteria and where (lunch line, à la carte line, vending machines). Later discuss differences between the school cafeteria and area restaurants.
6. Find and clip pictures of items needed for school. Discuss why each item is needed; where supplies such as paper, pencils and books are; the responsibility to bring one's own materials to class. Find the prices of such items, do comparative shopping, and determine the total cost.
7. Clip from the newspaper the names of area parks, malls, apartments, schools, streets, or other places that use the student's native language.
8. Keep a list of words in English that come from the student's native language.
9. Locate businesses and products that reflect the influence of the student's native language. What might the businesses sell?
10. Work on a bicultural calendar of events and holidays. (If the student is of Mexican origin, for example, include Mexican Independence Day (September 16), Mexican Mother's Day (May 10), or El Cinco De Mayo (May 5). Father Hidalgo might be compared with George Washington. Saints' days could be included.)
11. Use the entertainment section to discuss how holidays are celebrated. Do we have any holidays in common? Which holidays, such as Thanksgiving, seem to be distinctly American?
12. Collect newspaper articles and pictures that reflect customs, traditions, and people from the student's native culture.
13. Collect news stories and features about the native country or areas close to it. Discuss these with individuals in the class.

Regular Classroom Activities. Finally, whenever possible, include in regular activities students who are learning English. That will make them feel that they belong and may enable them to use their new language in a very meaningful context.

APPENDIX A
LEARNING ACTIVITY PACKET

Activity Sheet A: Rhyming

Level: Beginning

Instructions to the Tutor: The object of this exercise is to give your student a chance to remember as many English words as possible that rhyme with the words you say. Here are some words to start with:

map	run	say	ant	wing
top	see	you	rat	tie
man	know	hit	fish	feel

Here are some ways to do this:

1. You say one of the words. Your student tries to rhyme as many words as possible with it.
2. You say a word; your student rhymes a word; then you rhyme a word, and so on. You keep going until one of you cannot think of another word.
3. You say a line that ends with the word to be rhymed. Your student must create a line to rhyme with yours. Then you reverse, with your student going first.
4. You say three words that are similar, but only two of them rhyme. For example: *see, say, stay,* or *lock, took, rock.* Your student must listen and pick out the word that does not rhyme. Here are some others:

   time, fine, mine
   slap, trip, trap
   hurry, carry, marry

Activity Sheet B: Acting Out Emotions

Level: Beginning

Materials: A series of note cards with the words listed below printed in clear, heavy felt-tip ink

Instructions to the Tutor: On the cards provided are words stating emotions. You are to teach the meaning of the words by using the activities that follow.

1. Show the word to your student and act out the emotion. After you have done three or four, show the word to your student and have your student act out the emotion.
2. Place three of the words in front of your student. Act out one of the words and have your student point to and pronounce the word for the correct emotion.
3. Some emotions can be described by more than one word. Place all the word cards face up, act out an emotion, and have your student pick all the words that might fit the actions.
4. Tell your student an emotion and have the student act out that emotion.

Possible Words to Use

afraid	scared	lazy
happy	frightened	cranky
cheerful	sleepy	bored
tired	surprised	pleased
mad	worried	shocked
sad	unhappy	thoughtful
excited	angry	nervous

Activity Sheet C: Vocabulary around the House

Level: Beginning

Materials: A collection of pictures of rooms in various houses, taken from various housekeeping magazines

Instructions to the Tutor: Show these pictures one at a time to your student and ask your student to name as many objects as possible. Keep a record of the number named. Then ask your student to try to tell you how the objects are used. Afterward, go back over the pictures and name objects that your student missed. Have your student repeat the names after you.

Repeat this exercise on later days to see how much your student remembers.

Optional Activities

1. Have your student name objects in the room you are in.
2. Ask your student to go home and draw a map of the objects in his or her bedroom, living room, or kitchen.

Activity Sheet D. Asking Directions in a New Town

Level: Beginning to Intermediate

Material: A map of your town or any town

Instructions to the Tutor: You and your student are going to take turns pretending to be someone asking for information in a new town and someone giving the information. You may use the map if you want to.

Begin by modeling certain key questions:

Where is the _____ ?

How do I get to the _____ ?

Is there a _____ in this town?

Can you tell me where the _____ is?

Be sure that your student knows certain key terms: *right, left, straight, stop, turn, street, avenue, traffic light, sign.*

Be sure to teach certain terms of courtesy: *Thank you very much; You're welcome.*

Begin with simple directions and gradually move to the more difficult.

Activity Sheet E: Using a Telephone

Level: Beginning to Intermediate

Instructions to Tutor: You are going to role-play or act out several telephone situations with your student. First, find out if your student knows the following terms: *telephone, operator, receiver, dial tone, busy signal, ring or ringing, information, area code, telephone number.* If your student does not know any, draw a picture or demonstrate using gestures and sounds.

When you think your student knows enough words about the telephone, act out the following situations together:

1. Your student calls you to give you a message.
2. You call your student to give a message.
3. Your student calls, but gets a busy signal.
4. Your student dials the operator for assistance:
   a. to get a telephone number;
   b. to report a fire.
5. Your student places a local call at a pay telephone.
6. Your student places a long distance call at a pay telephone.

Activity Sheet F: HIDING SOMETHING

Level: Beginning to Intermediate

Material: Any small object, such as a coin or a pencil

Instructions to the Tutor:

1. This is a guessing game designed to teach your student new vocabulary while giving the student practice asking questions and answering questions. You are to show the student the object and explain that you are going to hide it. The student is to ask you questions to learn where it is. You are to answer in complete sentences. Begin by explaining that you will hide it in your clothes somewhere. Later, you may want to hide it somewhere in the room.
2. After you have hidden the object and it has been discovered, give it to your student, let your student hide it, and, this time, you ask the questions while your student answers in complete sentences.
3. Repeat this procedure for as long as you have time.

Activity Sheet G: SCAVENGER HUNT

Level: Beginning through Advanced

Materials: Any number of small objects that can be easily recognized and described

Instructions to the Tutor: You are going to send your student on a "Scavenger Hunt." To prepare for this hunt, you should take a group of objects that your student could easily recognize and hide them in various places.

The first time you play this game, hide only a few objects in various places around the school. (Check with your teacher to make sure it is all right for you and your student to walk about the school.) As your student's skill increases, hide more objects. You may want to keep a list if there are many objects.

You will be giving instructions to your student. Be sure your instructions are clear and accurate. The purpose of the game is not to confuse or trick your student, but to help your student understand English better. You may want the student to write the instructions down at first; later the student should try to remember them.

Follow your student to check on her or his accuracy and to make sure that your student does not make any big mistakes, like walking into the wrong classroom. Compliment your student when he or she does well.

Activity Sheet H: INTERVIEWING PEOPLE

Level: Beginning through Advanced

Materials: Cassette tape recorder, cassette tape

Instructions to the Tutor: Using the tape recorder, you and your student are to take turns interviewing each other. You may want to pretend that you are on the radio and that the person being interviewed is famous.

If your student is just *beginning* to speak English, keep your questions short and simple, such as:

What is your name?

Where do you live?

What do you do?

Do you like _____ ?

Optional activities if your student knows more English than a beginner:

1. See if you can keep your student talking for the length of the tape by asking more questions.
2. Develop a list of questions that your student can use to interview other students in the class, using the tape recorder, and then have your student interview them. Afterward, listen to the interviews together to see if your student understood their answers.
3. Have your student take the tape recorder home and interview a relative or neighbor. Then, when you are together again, help your student write down some of the questions and answers.

Activity Sheet I: Giving Dictation to the Tutor (Language Experience Approach)

Level: Beginning to Advanced

Instructions to the Tutor: The purpose of this exercise is to allow your student to see what he or she can say in English when it is written by a native English speaker. The student talks about a topic that you two decide upon first. While your student is talking, you are writing exactly what your student says, spelling it correctly and putting capitals and punctuation in the correct places.

When you and your student have finished, together go over what you have written; encourage your student to correct or improve the language. For example, if your student says, "He give ball to me yesterday," you would write, "He give ball to me yesterday," but then you would go through the sentence, encouraging your student to correct it or correcting it yourself: "He gave the ball to me yesterday."

To begin, find a topic that your student would feel good talking about. Below are some suggestions if your student cannot think of anything:

1. Talk about a hobby.
2. Talk about shopping for food in your country.
3. Talk about how this country is different from your country.
4. What do you do when you go home from school?
5. What is your favorite television show or movie? Talk about it.

Activity Sheet J: Taking Dictation from the Tutor

Level: Beginning through Advanced.

Materials: Any book that would interest the student being tutored and that would not be too difficult to understand

Instructions to the Tutor: Find a book that you think your student would like to read and that is not too difficult for your student to understand. You will be reading it out loud while your student is writing what you say.

1. Begin by reading short selections. In that way you will learn how fast you can read without reading too quickly for your student to follow. After several dictations, you may want to increase the amount you read.
2. Read slowly, but try to pronounce the words as normally as you can.
3. When you come to a punctuation mark, read it also. For example, "When you come to a punctuation mark comma read it also period."
4. After you have read through the selection slowly, read it again, but this time at a normal rate. Have your student check his or her copy while you are reading.
5. Then have your student read the selection back to you with punctuation marks. Check for accuracy by reading your copy while your student reads.
6. Now read your student's copy while the student reads along with you. Note any mistakes—misspellings, words misunderstood or missed.
7. Compliment your student for the things done correctly.

Activity Sheet K: Visiting a Library

Level: Intermediate

Instructions to Tutor: Today you are going to take your student to the library and teach the student how to find and check out a book.

Before you go, ask your student what the following are: *library, librarian, card catalogue, library card, check-out desk, stacks, reference section.*

If your student does not know any of those terms, teach them to the student when you arrive at the library. If your student knows all of them, you may not need to go to the library.

When your student knows the terms, practice the following:

1. Finding a book: "How do I find a book on _____ ?"
   "Where is the card catalogue?"
2. Checking out a book: "I would like to check this book out."
   "When is it due?"

Then go to the library and have your student find and check out a book that you have selected beforehand.

Activity Sheet L: Table Manners

Level: Intermediate

Materials: Salad fork, fork, teaspoon, tablespoon, knife, plate, cup and saucer, bread plate, salt shaker

Instructions to the Tutor:

1. Place all the items in this packet on a table in front of the student you are tutoring.
2. Pick up each item one at a time and name it for the student. Ask the student to repeat the name after you.
3. When the student knows the names for the items, mix them up and ask the student to tell you where each item belongs.
4. Demonstrate how Americans eat at the table. Ask your student if there are any questions.
   a. How does one hold a fork?
   b. How does one cut a piece of meat and eat it?
   c. How does one ask for salt or butter or anything else?
   d. How does one refuse more food if one is full?
5. Practice these table manners with your student as often as you need to.

Activity Sheet M: Acting

Level: Intermediate to Advanced

Instructions to the Tutor: Below are some situations and characters to fit those situations. Cut them apart, fold them, and each of you draw one of the roles from each situation. Do not mix all the situations together. Work with only one situation at a time.

1. a. You are a teacher. A student is coming to you with a problem.

   b. You are a student. Ask your teacher if you can turn an assignment in late.

2. a. You are a parent. You do not want your child to stay out late.

   b. Go to your parent and ask for permission to stay out late.

3. a. You are a dentist.

   b. Go to your dentist and tell where you feel pain.

4. a. You are a policeman.

   b. You are lost. Go to the policeman for help.

5. a. You are a waiter or waitress who is very tired.

   b. You are eating in a restaurant, but you do not like anything on the menu.

Activity Sheet N: Comparing Values

Level: Intermediate to Advanced

Instructions to the Tutor: This exercise is designed to help you and your student begin to understand each other's cultures. You are to read each of the sentences below, and each of you is to answer them on separate pieces of paper. When you are done, compare your answers and discuss those that are different. Why do you each feel the way you do? Do not judge your student's answers, but try to understand them.

1. A good person is one who _____.
2. A good parent always _____.
3. A good student always _____.
4. The most important thing in the world is _____.
5. When I am alone, I like to _____.
6. My favorite holiday is _____.
7. The class I like best in school is _____.
8. My favorite food is _____.
9. I feel good when _____.
10. When I have a problem, I _____.

Activity Sheet O: Explaining How to Do Something

Level: Intermediate to Advanced

Instructions to Tutor: First, you have to find out something that your student knows how to do and can explain to you. Explain what a hobby is, giving some examples. Does your student have a hobby? If so, have your student explain the hobby to you. Ask questions, even if you already know about the hobby. Pretend that you don't.

Alternative topics for your student to explain:

1. A job that your student has done
2. How people shop for food in your student's native country
3. How to repair something that is broken
4. Directions from the student's home to school
5. How to play a sport

When your student has finished, you try to repeat what was said. Encourage your student to correct you if you are wrong.

Activity Sheet P: Handling a Rumor

Level: Intermediate to Advanced

Instructions to the Tutor: Below is a list of rumors. Cut them apart, fold them, and mix them together. Explain to your student that a rumor is a story people are telling that may or may not be true. Then have your student pick one and read it. You are to respond to the rumor yourself. Then switch roles: you read a rumor and your student must answer it. If you run out of rumors, make them up yourself.

I heard you may be moving. Is that true?

I heard that you failed your English test. I'm sorry.

Is it true that your family always runs a mile before supper?

Someone told me that you are thirty years old. Is that true?

Someone told me your mother (sister) is a former Olympic gymnast. Is that true?

Is it true that you have nine brothers and sisters?

Activity Sheet Q: Expressing One's Reactions

Level: Advanced

Situation: Your student has just purchased a cassette tape recorder and discovered that it does not work. The store owner who sold it says the store cannot repair it.

You are to teach your student how to write a letter to the manufacturer, explaining the situation and asking that the tape recorder be repaired or replaced.

Procedure:

1. Explain the situation and the task to your student.
2. Show your student how to write a business letter, including the date, the inside address, the greeting and the salutation.
3. Talk over what your student will write first. If it helps, take notes and/or make an outline.
4. Have your student write the letter and, when finished, check it together. Pay particular attention to the punctuation and how the letter will sound when it is read.

APPENDIX B
SELF-DIRECTING SOURCES FOR INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

The tests, materials, and methods listed here, although listed under each specific heading, can easily be interchanged and/or adapted to be used in any of the skill areas.

I. Listening

A. Tests
   1. *English Self-Taught*, Eugene J. Hall
   2. All the workbooks listed under materials have their own progress tests.

B. Materials
   1. *Review Exercises for English as a Foreign Language*, Virginia F. & Robert L. Allen
   2. *First Book in American English*, Gladys F. Alesi, and Dora F. Pantell
   3. *Second Book in American English*, Gladys E. Alesi, and Dora F. Pantell
   4. *English 900* (Pre-Recorded Tapes 1-6), English Language Services, Inc.
   5. *Building English Sentences* (with *Verbals*, with *Be*, with *1 Verb*, with *2 Verbs*), Eugene J. Hall
   6. *Sounds and Syllables*, Eugene J. Hall
   7. *English Self-Taught*, Eugene J. Hall (Books 1-8, Recordings 1-8)
   8. *It's Fun to Listen*, Milliken Publishing Company
   9. *It's More Fun to Listen*, Milliken Publishing Company
   10. *The Sound Way* (1 & 2), Hayes
   11. *Listen and Speak to Read*, Hayes
   12. *Sounds We Use* (1, 2, & 3)

C. Methods
   1. Records
   2. Listen and Read Tapes
   3. Syllable Tap Game
   4. Radio
   5. Television
   6. Other listening games

II. Reading

A. Tests
1. *Programmed Reading for Adults*, Cynthia Dee Buchanan
2. *Step* (A & B)
3. *Sucher Allred*
4. *Dolch Basic Sight Words* (with Pictures)
5. *Slossen Inventory*
6. *IRI* (Informal Reading Inventory)

B. Materials
1. *Building Your Language Power* (Books 1-6), Frank C. Laubach
2. *Modern American English* (Books 1-6), Robert J. Dixson
3. *Programmed Reading for Adults*, Cynthia Dee Buchanan
4. *Reading Games*, Wagner
5. *The Consonant Series*, Milliken Publishing Company
6. *The Vowel Series*, Milliken Publishing Company
7. *The Advanced Reading Skill Series*, Milliken Publishing Company
8. *English 900* (Textbooks 1-6, Readers 1-6), English Language Services, Inc.
9. *English Self-Taught*, Eugene J. Hall
10. *The Self-Instructional Modalities*, Milton Bradley Company
    a. Vowel Sounds
    b. Consonant Sounds
    c. Language Patterns
    d. Vocabulary Development
11. *Improving Reading Rate II*, VMI
12. *Improving Reading Comprehension*, VMI
13. *Phonics*, The Hayes Series
14. Hayes Individualized Reading Aids & Activities

C. Methods
1. CSSD (attacking words with context, sound, structure, division)
2. Skills lessons (short, self-directing)
3. Games

III. Speaking

A. Tests
   1. *Sucher Allred*
   2. *English Self-Taught*, Eugene J. Hall
   3. All the workbooks listed under materials have their own progress tests.

B. Materials
   1. *Sounds & Syllables*, Eugene J. Hall
   2. *English Self-Taught* (Books 1-8, Recordings 1-8), Eugene J. Hall
   3. *Listen and Speak to Read*, Hayes
   4. *Sounds We Use* Series, Hayes
   5. The Milliken Publishing Company materials (see II. Reading)
   6. *Programmed Reading for Adults*, Cynthia Dee Buchanan
   7. *Reading Games*, Wagner
   8. *The Self-Instructional Modalities*, Milton Bradley Company
      a. Vowel Sounds
      b. Consonant Sounds
      c. Language Patterns
      d. Vocabulary Development

C. Methods
   1. Impromptu speaking
   2. Reading aloud (to hear self)
   3. Tape-recording
   4. Syllable Tap Game
   5. Password game
   6. Other games

IV. Writing

A. Tests
   1. *English Self-Taught*, Eugene J. Hall
   2. All of the workbooks listed under materials have their own progress tests.

B. Materials
   1. *Review Exercises for English as a Foreign Language*, Virginia F. & Robert L. Allen
   2. *First Book in American English*, Gladys E. Alesi & Dora F. Pantell
   3. *Second Book in American English*, Gladys E. Alesi & Dora F. Pantell
   4. *English 900* (Workbooks 1-6), English Language Services, Inc.
   5. *Building English Sentences* (with *Verbals*, with *Be*, with *1 Verb*, with *2 Verbs*), Eugene J. Hall
   6. *Sounds & Syllables*, Eugene J. Hall
   7. *English Self-Taught* (Books 1-8, Recordings 1-8), Eugene J. Hall
   8. The Milliken Publishing Company materials (see II. Reading)
   9. *The Self-Instructional Modalities*, Milton Bradley Company
      a. Vowel Sounds
      b. Consonant Sounds
      c. Language Patterns
      d. Vocabulary Development

C. Methods
   1. Writing a story about self to stimulate interest
   2. Games—with words, pictures, phrases, etc.
   3. Skills lessons (short, self-directing)

APPENDIX C
THE OPEN LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

An approach for developing methods and materials for beginning English as a Second Language programs

Rationale

It has become evident to many teachers of ESL students that most of the available texts and materials are based on artificial sequencing of grammatical structures and stilted, often irrelevent, dialogues and topics. Only recently, with the stimulation of current research in second language learning and teaching, have new materials appeared based on the communicative needs of students. These new research insights and materials have finally accepted a principle often discovered in the past by classroom teachers: that effective ESL teaching must be based on helping students learn the language they need to function successfully in everyday situations and in future settings where they will be using English.

Another principle derived from current research concerns the comparison of first and second language learning in children *and* older learners and the possibility of patterning second language learning experiences on the model of natural first language learning. Just as children, in learning the first language, are exposed to a variety of experiences and accompanying language in a supportive environment to which they creatively respond, the second language learner may also be capable of responding to natural open language experiences based on communication needs.

In a plan based on those principles, students would be placed in a variety of experiences with accompanying language such as a trip to the zoo, lunch at a cafeteria, learning to play soccer, going to the supermarket. In experiences such as these, the learner is exposed to language in meaningful contexts. As beginners, their task is simply to attend to the sights and sounds of the experience, listen to the language which is part of the experience, and attempt to understand what they see and hear. Language presented in this situation can become meaningful to the student because of the many audiovisual clues which accompany it. The student can then begin to comprehend some of the language appropriate to the objects and actions in the setting. Since frequent field experiences may not be possible in school settings, simulated or vicarious experiences may be provided in the regular classroom. Appropriate films, videotapes, sound filmstrips, and dramatic presentations may be used to stimulate student attention and provide the meaningful contexts in which the language is best learned.

Although it may be possible for ESL students to learn English naturally through a curriculum made up of a long series of open language experiences, it is obvious that such a program would require years of student involvement. In practice, ESL classes for children, teenagers, and adults are limited to a fraction of the

school day, or the students are in mixed classes and regular teachers are asked to provide some special ESL activities for students who need it. With the limited time available it is necessary to follow open language experiences with more intensive structured situations, dialogues, and role-playing activities.

In the structured situation phase of this model, students are presented with simple but natural narratives or long dialogues of no more than 100 words based on the language of segments of the open language experience. These are accompanied by visual clues through use of pictures, objects, silent films, or filmstrips taken from the larger experience and used again to provide a meaningful context for the language presentation. Material of about 100 words in length has been found to be too long for quick memorization by students, thus the emphasis in this phase is for the student to concentrate on the meaning of the material. In addition, at least ten guide questions are presented to the student following the narration. These are constructed from the material in the narration and are designed to be answered by students with some of the language they have heard. What is encouraged here is the beginning of full responses using language understood from meaningful presentations.

In beginning classes a large difference in the ability of students to respond to the guide questions will exist. Many students will be too timid or unable to attempt responses in English although their listening comprehension may be good. For most students, therefore, an additional phase involving the learning of short dialogues will be helpful and will give beginning students the confidence of actually using the language. The dialogues should be taken from the language of the structured situations, presented in no more than eight lines but using the natural yet simple language appropriate to the experience. Dialogues can be presented orally by the teacher or other students with repetition and guided memorizing, again with visual clues. Reading and writing can also begin in the dialogue phase with the teacher use of charts containing the dialogue sentences and students learning to print their own word cards from the dialogues and arranging them in sentences as they memorize. These word cards can then be used for reviewing dialogues, constructing new sentences with the same and new words, and phonics activities based on these sight words, which will help the student make the transition to reading other relevant text materials and stories. Two or three students may be assigned to practice the dialogue until they feel confident enough to present it orally to the class.

Building of confidence through these memorized presentations will lead to students' participation in role playing and dramatic activities. After being involved in several structured situations and mastering related dialogues, students will have internalized enough of the basic language associated with the open language experience that they will be able to respond to role-playing situations planned by the teacher. These should be directly related to segments of the original open language experience. Students will be given short descriptions of a situation and asked to act out the roles of the people in these settings without looking at the printed dialogue material previously memorized. The role-playing activities should be similar to the narratives and dialogues, but sufficiently different to encourage freer use of the language.

Throughout the structured situation, dialogue, and role-playing phases, the teachers become diagnosticians, noting errors as the students attempt to respond, present dialogues, or act out role-playing situations. The teacher can categorize the errors noting phonological (pronunciation), grammatical, and semantic errors made by a large number of class members, a small group, or an individual student.

It is from these errors that the teacher plans appropriate practice activities. Recent second language learning research has indicated that making errors is a positive illustration of the students' attempts to internalize language forms by developing hypotheses based on the language material they hear. For example, students may have hypothesized from many examples and contexts that the *ed* ending indicates past tense. As a result, they may overextend this hypothesis and apply it inappropriately to an irregular verb and make an error such as eat*ed* instead of *ate*. Errors such as this may disappear after the student has been exposed to the language for a longer period of time, but the teacher must eventually judge that a persistent error continues to interfere with meaning and provide practice activities for correction or prevention of this error. A valuable use of published ESL text material is to provide the teacher with ready-made practice activities for most predictable errors. These texts are usually organized with tables of contents and indexes that make it possible for the teacher to select quickly the practices needed for phonological, grammatical and semantic errors. In this phase, the teacher and other students may work with individuals or small groups, guiding them through the appropriate practice activities. After ESL students have learned to read and write at basic levels, they may work at these materials individually or in pairs.

The evaluation phase of this model is based on a reality principle: the effectiveness of language instruction is best tested by assessing the student's use of the language in the actual experience. Thus, the students completing the phases of the unit are asked to repeat the open language experience to which they were first exposed and during which they may have only been able to listen. For example, in an experience involving shopping at a supermarket, students are given a shopping list and a sum of money and asked to bring back a report on their activity and evidence of a successful shopping trip. If the actual field experience cannot be undertaken, a simulation of the experience may be arranged in a classroom.

Students who are unsuccessful in their performance would then be assigned repeated dialogues, role playing, and error-based activities followed by repetitions of the open-language experience. This recycling of some students need not prevent the introduction of another open language experience unit for the whole class.

Although some publishers are attempting to produce textbooks based on the communicative needs of ESL students with related phonological, grammatical, and vocabulary activities, they are unable to predict completely the needs of thousands of ESL students representing all ages and backgrounds. Only teachers struggling to meet the needs of their students can use interview techniques and interaction with students to determine and predict student communication needs and build practice activities related to the actual language errors of students.

The following outline for an open language experience unit plan and sample unit is offered as a possible model for teachers to use in their efforts to create more meaningful materials for their ESL students.

Model Open Language Experience Unit Outline

I. Determining Needs and Interests
   A. List the communication needs and interests of the target group.
   B. In what settings *will* they be using English?
   C. In what settings are they *currently* needing English?
II. Planning Open Language Experience Activities
   A. Select one of these needs or interests and develop an open language experience activity in which the students can use their natural language learning abilities.

B. The meaning and language in this experience will be acquired by the student's *listening* and *observing* the context.
C. Examples:
1. Plan a field trip to a supermarket.
2. Show a relevant sound film.
3. Plan to bring in a group of native speakers of English to act out a situation, e.g., eating lunch at an American restaurant.
D. Write your plan for the open language experience activity in enough detail so that another ESL teacher can follow it.

III. Structured Situations
A. Select three parts of the open language experience. Example: checking out at the supermarket
B. Write three narratives of about 100 words each to be presented by the teacher or another student that describe or discuss three parts of the open language experience activity.
1. Keep the language natural and appropriate to the situation.
2. Keep vocabulary as simple as possible.
3. Keep sentences as short as possible.
C. Prepare visual cues to meaning to accompany the structured situation. Examples: pictures, objects, silent film or filmstrip
D. Prepare at least 10 guide questions for each structured situation that can be answered by the students directly from the structured situation presentation.
E. Have students role play what they remember.
F. Note student errors as they attempt to answer the questions.

IV. Short dialogues
A. Write at least 6 short dialogues (about 8 lines each) based on the structured situations.
B. Present each dialogue orally to the group.
C. Have students practice each dialogue in pairs (or threes) and in front of the class.
D. Note student errors as they present dialogues.

V. Drama and Role Playing in Activities
A. Plan additional activities based on the structured situation and dialogues.
B. Note student errors.

VI. Error Analysis
A. Analyze student phonological (pronunciation), grammatical, and semantic errors from the structured situations, dialogues, and other activities.
B. Categorize the errors:
1. Common class
2. Small group
3. Individual

VII. Planned Practice—Plan practice activities for the class, small groups, and individuals that focus on their particular errors and their developmental needs.

VIII. Repeated Open Language Experience—Ask students to repeat the open language experience and report the results.

IX. Recycling—Have students who were unsuccessful in the open language experience repeat dialogues and practice activities.

X. Plan and present a new Open Language Experience Unit.

APPENDIX D
SAMPLE PLAN FOR AN OPEN LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE: SHOPPING AT THE SUPERMARKET

This is a report on the open language experience and materials used with an ESL class of Vietnamese refugees living in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

1. Needs Assessment

   A translator was present at the first session and through him the students were asked questions about the nature of their English needs. For instance, each student was asked how long s/he had been in the United States and whether or not s/he had had any formal schooling in his/her native country. Students were also asked what kinds of places—bank, post office, grocery store, airport, bakery—they had been to in the United States, and what they felt to be their most essential English language needs.

2. Planning the Open Language Experience Activity

   Everyone had been to a grocery store in the United States, and each student expressed a need to learn the American system of money; hence, a grocery store setting was chosen for the open language experience, the need and current use of English in this setting having been established.

   After the translator explained the purpose of the activity, the class was taken on a field trip to a small neighborhood grocery store. We took a grocery list with us and empty pop bottles to return. At the store the class was videotaped observing and listening to the teacher. The teacher asked prices of the grocer, compared prices of items and made choices of what items to buy, went through the checkout stand, got change, said goodbye to the grocer, went home, and put the groceries into the refrigerator and cupboards. The videotape of this experience, as well as the actual objects purchased, were used as vehicles or props for later lessons on various phases of grocery shopping.

   The videotape was also used as a basis for discussion in class, for error analysis and correction, and for the amusement and motivation of the students. In the final stage of the open language experience, testing, when the students went to a large supermarket with a grocery list and purchased groceries "on their own," another videotape was made and used in class for error analysis and for assessment of teaching success.

   The three phases of grocery shopping dealt with in this report include: making a grocery list, choosing groceries, and going through the checkout stand.

3. Structured Situations

   Narrative A

   I want to make a grocery list. I get a pencil and a piece of paper to write down what I need. Let's see. What do I need? I open my refrigerator. I need milk. I need eggs. I need butter. I write down: milk, eggs, butter. Also, I need orange juice. I have plenty of vegetables—onions, carrots, celery, and tomatoes. So I don't need to buy any vegetables. Do I have any fruit? I have oranges. But I don't have any apples. I need apples. So here is my grocery list: milk, eggs,

butter, orange juice, apples.

Guide Questions

(1) What is a grocery list?
(2) How do I make a grocery list?
(3) What do I open to see what I need?
(4) Which vegetables do I have?
(5) What vegetables do I need to buy?
(6) What fruit do I have?
(7) What fruit do I need to buy?
(8) Which three dairy products do I need to buy?
(9) What kind of fruit juice do I need to buy?
(10) What items are on my grocery list?

Narrative B

At the grocery store I get a grocery cart. I look at my grocery list. It says: milk, eggs, butter, orange juice, apples. I find the *dairy* aisle. I put a quart of skim milk and a dozen eggs in my cart. I see that a pound (lb.) of butter costs $1.15. I see that a pound (lb.) of margarine costs $0.97. I put the margarine, not the butter, in my cart. I go to the produce aisle. I see red apples and green apples. I choose six green apples. I find the canned orange juice. I put one can of pure, unsweetened orange juice into my cart.

Guide Questions

(1) What is a grocery cart?
(2) What is on my grocery list?
(3) How much milk do I choose?
(4) How many eggs do I buy? How many eggs are there in a dozen?
(5) Why do I choose margarine instead of butter?
(6) In what aisle do I find apples?
(7) What kinds of apples do I see?
(8) Which apples do I choose?
(9) How many apples do I buy?
(10) What kind of orange juice do I put into my cart?

Narrative C

At the checkout register I put my groceries on the counter. The quart of milk costs $0.59, the pound of margarine costs $0.97, the dozen eggs cost $0.68. The clerk says, "The apples are $0.59 a pound; that will be $0.74." The can of juice costs $0.79. The total is $3.77 plus tax. Tax is $0.15. The total bill is $3.92. I give the clerk a five dollar bill. He gives me a penny, "3.93," another penny, "$3.94," another penny, "$3.95," a nickel, "$4.00," a dollar bill, "$5.00." He puts my groceries in a bag and says, "Thank you." I say, "Thank you and goodbye."

Guide Questions

(1) At the checkout stand where do I put my groceries?
(2) How much does the milk cost?
(3) How much does the margarine cost?
(4) How much are the apples?
(5) How much money do I give the clerk?
(6) How many pennies does the clerk give me in change?
(7) How many nickels does the clerk give me in change?
(8) How many dollar bills does the clerk give me in change?
(9) Where does the clerk put my groceries?
(10) What is the last thing I say to the clerk?

4. Dialogues

a. Making a grocery list

A: What do you need at the grocery store?

B: I don't know. Let me see.

A: Do you need any vegetables?

B: No, I have plenty.

A: Do you need some fruit?

B: Well, I have oranges, but I don't have apples.

A: Then you need some apples.

B: Yes, I need some apples.

A: I'm going to make out my grocery list.

B: Here's a pencil and paper. Let me write it for you.

A: Okay. Write down milk, eggs, and butter.

B: Okay. Milk, eggs, and butter. What else?

A: Write down apples.

B: Okay. Apples.

A: Write down orange juice. That's all.

B: Okay. I've got milk, eggs, butter, apples, and orange juice.

b. Choosing groceries

A: Where do I find the dairy products?

B: Over there. You'll see the milk, butter, and eggs.

A: How much does the butter cost?

B: It's $1.15 a pound. The margarine is cheaper.

A: Where do I find the apples?

B: Over there in the produce section.

A: Excuse me. Where can I find the orange juice?

B: Over there. It says "Canned Juice."

A: Excuse me. Where is the dairy aisle?

B: Over there.

A: Thank you.

B: You're welcome.

A: Excuse me. Where is the produce?

B: There. See the carrots and lettuce?

A: Oh, yes. Thank you.

B: You're welcome.

c. Going through the checkout line

A: Hello.

B: Hello.

A: How much were the eggs?

B: A dozen eggs cost $.79.

A: Fine.

B: That will be $3.92

A: Here's a five dollar bill.

B: Thank you. Here's your change. Have a nice day.

A: Thank you. Goodbye.

A: Hello. How are you?

B: Hello. I'm fine, thank you.

B: That will be $3.92.

B: How much was the tax on that?

A: $0.15.

B: Thanks. Here's a five dollar bill.

A: Your change is $1.08. Thank you. Have a nice day.

B: Thank you. Goodbye.

5. Role-Playing Activities

Between the open language field experience of the trip to a small neighborhood grocery store and the test situation of having students purchase groceries at a large supermarket, we had several lessons that focused on role playing. We used an actual grocery cart and props of vegetables, milk cartons, margarine and butter cartons, and various other grocery items.

Role playing seemed to be the most successful phase of the open language experience. Students enjoyed and joked and created language to fit the situation. Given the dialogues, which they hadn't completely memorized but which they had understood, the students played with the possibilities of language. Given "Excuse me," to mean let me pass with my grocery cart, one student elaborated, "I want to go by you." Given "Where is the produce?" another student elaborated, "I want to find the celery." Given the format, "I want to buy a gallon of milk," a student, seeing a knife on the kitchen counter, expanded the form to say, "Excuse me. I want to buy a knife."

Error Analysis

With this particular group of Vietnamese the consensus of native speakers dealing with the students seemed to be that pronunciation was a serious problem. Vietnamese native speakers have difficulty with pronunciation of English to such an extent that it is not advisable to ignore it.

In particular, this group of students tended to omit the final consonants of all English words. The word for book (*bok*) became (*bu*); the word for cap (*kaep*) became (*kae*). First person, singular, present tense verbs invariably were pronounced without the final *s*. The final *s* in plurals was rarely pronounced. Hence a question such as "What does she eat?" elicited the response, "She eat apple and cookie." Since this response is easily understood by a native speaker, in a "real" conversation between a native speaker and a native Vietnamese speaker using English, there was no great effort to correct pronunciation; however, when we were doing

drills and patterns, we felt it was very appropriate to concentrate on the pronunciation of the final consonants of words, especially the final *s* with the plurals, and the final consonant on common words such as book and ship. We focused attention on this problem through a translator, explaining that in English the final consonants and especially the pronunciation of *s*'s was important. This explanation seemed to help; certainly it facilitated our corrections and their being understood by the students.

APPENDIX E
TESTING FOR ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Classroom teachers with several ESL students in their classes will have access to many language tests which measure various reading and writing skills. These tests will be used to assess students' needs and mastery of specific language skills. However, they are not designed to reveal the students' overall language proficiency and their ability to use language in real communication contexts. For these purposes teachers will need to examine procedures which sample language proficiency and communication ability. Among these are observations, oral interviews, cloze tests, and dictation.

Observations

A primary source of teacher understanding of students' communication ability will be direct observation of the students' interaction with English speakers in natural situations at recess, on the playground, between classes, at lunch, etc. These observations will reveal students' abilities to meet their needs through language: to play, to express feelings, to ask for foods, to follow directions, etc. From observation and careful notation a teacher could derive some diagnosis of the ESL students' needs and be able then to plan for appropriate language activities which will develop their communication abilities. Regular, periodic observations will also provide the teacher with an informal ongoing evaluation procedure, giving evidence of student progress.

Oral Interviews

A more structured approach to assessing student language proficiency involves the use of questions in a personal interview. This procedure is crucial as the teacher meets the ESL student for the first time early in the semester. Repeated periodically throughout the year it provides another informal measure of student progress. Interview questions should be designed to put the student at ease. The teacher's first goal is to get to know the students and their needs. The second goal is to stimulate a sampling of the students' language ability. The teacher will record student responses under each question. Questions should be easy at first and as open-ended as possible, encouraging a conversational situation. If the student seems to not comprehend a question, it should be repeated or rephrased. Questions should increase in difficulty, gradually achieving a higher abstraction level with a view to discovering at what level the students' language fail. (See example: *Interview Sample*, p. 44.)

Taping the interview may be a helpful method of recording the student's responses for analysis later and for comparison with other interviews and language

samples throughout the year. *A Checklist for Interview Findings* (see example, p. 45) may be used as a guide for analysis and recording notes. These could then be used as a diagnostic device to aid the teacher in selecting language skill practice and materials needed by individual students. (See example: *Self-Directing Sources for Individual Instruction in English as a Second Language*, p. 28.)

Cloze Tests

Another device for measuring student language proficiency is the cloze procedure based on the concept of closure from Gestalt psychology. This procedure capitalizes on the tendency of the individual to perceive the whole in any pattern before noticing the details. As applied to language testing, the concept of closure has led in recent years to the development of the cloze test as a measure of reading comprehension. Later it was discovered that the results of the cloze test correlate highly with listening comprehension tests. As a result, the cloze test has become widely used as a measure of language proficiency.

A common variety of this test consists of a passage of at least 250 words in length at a level appropriate to the student. The first and last sentence of the passage is left intact as a guide to overall meaning. Beginning with the second sentence, every fifth word is randomly deleted from the passage (see example: *Cloze Readability Procedure*, p. 46). This provides a *sampling* of various types of words (e.g., short words such as prepositions and longer words such as nouns and verbs). The task of the student is to use grammatical and contextual clues to fill in the blanks with an appropriate word. By necessity the students demonstrate understanding of the entire passage as they use clues to syntax and meaning, not only in each sentence but among the sentences, to determine their choices for each blank (see example: *Cloze Test Sample*, p. 47). A variation of the cloze test especially useful for beginning ESL students includes the use of several word choices for each blank.

Analysis of errors made on the cloze test may reveal patterns which can be used by the teacher in deciding on individual language skill instruction. For example, a pattern of errors may exist in the choice of the forms of *be*. Specific instruction may be developed to assist the student in understanding and using these forms in appropriate contexts through listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities.

Another variation of the cloze procedure is the construction of pre- and post-tests deleting only one word class, e.g., all adjectives may be deleted and the student asked to insert appropriate words in the blanks.

Cloze tests may also be used as a measure of student progress. Repeated testing on material at the same level may reveal gains, and retesting on higher level material may indicate students' increasing language proficiency.

Dictation Tests

The use of dictation as a testing procedure also taps the general language ability of ESL students. The dictation test, like the cloze test, reveals the students' ability to make use of grammatical and contextual clues from the material they listen to as they attempt to write what they hear.

The teacher selects a passage at an appropriate level and reads it aloud at a normal speed, while students listen. Only during the second reading do the students attempt to write down what they hear; the teacher reads with natural pauses and

breaks in the sentences. A third reading follows with breaks for the student to correct mistakes and fill in gaps. Then the students finally reread what they have written, making corrections and additions through the use of syntax and meaning clues in and among the sentences.

Dictation tests may also be used to diagnose specific language problems. Repeated errors of a certain type may lead the teacher to prepare and select specific language skills instruction. Student progress may also be checked as the dictation tests reveal fewer errors at one level, and the student is able to follow and write from dictation materials at higher levels.

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INTERVIEW SAMPLE

1. **Hello. My name is Mrs. Wagoner. Is this your first day in our school?**

R1.

2. **Have you just moved to Albuquerque?**

R2.

3. **Where did you go to school before you came here?**

R3.

4. **Where is that school?**

R4.

5. **Do you have sisters or brothers who come here to Adams with you?**

R5.

6. **Tell me about your family and why you moved.**

R6.

7. **Where were you born? Tell me about it. Was it different than this town?**

R7.

8. **What were your favorite subjects in school? Why?**

R8.

9. **Do you like to speak English? At school or at home?**

R9.

10. **How do you want to use your English besides at school? Movies? Job? Shopping? Socially?**

R10.

11. **Will you read this note for me and tell me what it says?**

    Since Mrs. Mayfield is in the hospital, she has a substitute teaching for her. Would you take this note to her substitute and tell her when to come to the assembly? Thanks, T. Wagoner.

    (The other side of the note is to the substitute teacher, giving the time for the assembly.)

R11

CHECKLIST FOR INTERVIEW FINDINGS

Student Name: _____ **Age**_____ **Grade** _____ **Date** _____

Speaking and Listening

Accent

Grammar
- **One word**
- **Two words**
- **Complete sentence**
- **Word order in sentence**
- **Complex sentences**
- **Use of idioms or figurative language**
- **Knowledge of deep structure of questions**

Vocabulary

Fluency

Comprehension
- **Understood main idea of questions**
- **Understood details of questions**
- **Answered inference questions**

Reading

Vocabulary

Rate of reading

Comprehension
- **Understood main idea of note**
- **Understood details in note**
- **Understood inference in note**

Writing

Vocabulary

Vocabulary

Grammar
- **One word**
- **Two words**
- **Complete sentence**
- **Word order in sentence**
- **Complex sentences**
- **Use of idioms or figurative language**

Comments: (interests, desires, needs)

THE CLOZE READABILITY PROCEDURE

The cloze readability procedure includes these steps:

1. Each passage should begin at the normal beginning of a paragraph and each should be at least 250 words in length excluding the first and last sentences. The test, for reasons of both convenience and test reliability, should contain exactly 50 items.
2. *Every fifth*, seventh, or tenth word in the passage is deleted and replaced by underlined blanks of a standard length. *No deletions are made from the first and last sentence in the passage.*
3. The tests are duplicated and given without time limits to students who have *not* read the passages from which the tests were made.
4. The students are instructed to read the entire passage through at least once before writing, and to write in each blank the word they think was deleted.
5. Responses are scored correct when they exactly match (disregarding minor misspellings) the words deleted. When the tests have been properly made, students' scores can be interpreted as a measure of how well they understand the materials from which the tests were made.

   Appropriate synonyms may be considered correct responses if the test is taken by second language learners.
6. To use the cloze test to determine the suitability of the material for instructional purposes, the following scoring procedure is used:

   When a student's score falls between 44 and 57 percent (22-29 out of 50) on one of these tests, the materials are at the level of difficulty thought to be suitable for use in that student's supervised instruction (instructional reading level).

   Materials on which a student's score is above 57 percent are suitable for use in that student's independent study (independent or free reading level).

CLOZE TEST SAMPLE

Title: "Two Live and Healthy Coyotes," John Steinbeck, from *Travels with Charley: In Search of America.* In *Voices in Literature, Language and Composition I,* Ginn & Co., 1974, pp. 372-373.

Book: *Voices in Literature, Language and Composition.* Ginn ? Co., 1974.

The Mojave is a big desert and a frightening one. It's as though nature tested a man for endurance and constancy to prove whether he was good enough to go to California. The shimmering dry heat __(1)__ visions of water on __(2)__ flat plain. And even __(3)__ you drive at high __(4)__, the hills that mark __(5)__ boundaries recede before you. __(6)__, always a dog for __(7)__, panted asthmatically, jarring his __(8)__ body with the effort, __(9)__ a good eight inches __(10)__ tongue hung out __(11)__ as a leaf and __(12)__. I pulled off the __(13)__ into a small gulley __(14)__ give him water from __(15)__ thirty-gallon tank. But __(16)__ I let him drink __(17)__ poured water all over __(18)__ and on my hair __(19)__ shoulders and shirt. The __(20)__ is so dry that __(21)__ makes you feel suddenly __(22)__.

I opened a can __(23)__ beer from my refrigerator __(24)__ sat well inside the __(25)__ of Rocinante, looking out __(26)__ the sunpounded plain, dotted __(27)__ and there with clumps __(28)__ sagebrush.

About fifty yards __(29)__ two coyotes stood watching __(30)__, their tawny coats blending __(31)__ sand and sun. I __(32)__ that with any quick __(33)__ suspicious movement of mine __(34)__ could drift into invisibility. __(35)__ the most casual slowness __(36)__ reached down my new __(37)__ from its sling over __(38)__ bed—the .222 with __(39)__ bitter little high-speed, long- __(40)__ stings. Very slowly I __(41)__ the rifle up. Perhaps __(42)__ the shade of my __(43)__ I was half hidden __(44)__ the blinding light outside. __(45)__ little rifle has a __(46)__ telescope sight with a __(47)__ field. The coyotes had __(48)__ moved.

I got both __(49)__ them in the field __(50)__ my telescope, and the glass brought them very close. (Did he or didn't he kill the coyotes? Turn to p. 373 of *Voices* for the conclusion of this exciting adventure.)

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Saville-Troike, Muriel. *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Method for Multicultural Education.* New York: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

Steiglitz, Francine B. *Teaching a Second Language: Sentence Length and Syntax.* No. 14 in a series of research reports sponsored by the NCTE Committee on Research. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1973.

Valette, Rebecca M., and Disick, Renee S. *Modern Language Performance Objectives and Individualization: A Handbook.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972.

Selected Newsletters of Possible Interest

This listing, while not exhaustive, provides the classroom teacher with ongoing publications that note current resources.

Basque Studies Program Newsletter. Write to Coordinator, Basque Studies Program, University of Nevada Library, Reno, NV 89557

ERIC/CLL News Bulletin. Write to ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209

FORUM. Write to National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1500 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 802, Rosslyn, VA 22209

ICP Newsletter. Write to Editor, Institute for Cultural Pluralism, 5544½ Hardy Ave., San Diego, CA 92182

Indochinese Refugee Alert Bulletin. Write to National Indochinese Clearinghouse (HICTAC), 1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, VA 22209

La Red/ The Net. Write to *La Red*, National Chicano Research Network, 5080 Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

Linguistic Reporter. Write to Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209

MEC Multicultural Education Center. Write to Director, Multicultural Education Center, University Tower 1338, Cleveland State University, Cleveland, OH 44115

Selected ESL and Bilingual Education Journals

Bilingual Review/Revista Bilingue. City College of New York, Department of Romance Languages, Convent Ave. and 138th St., New York, New York 10031

English Language Teaching. Oxford University Press, 200 Madison Ave., New York, New York 10016

Foreign Language Annals. 2 Park Ave., New York, New York 10016

Language Learning. N5714 University Hospital, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109

Modern Language Journal. Richard S. Thill, Box 688, Omaha, Nebraska 68101

TESOL Quarterly. 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057